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SOCIOLOGICAL NOTES.

[The editor of this department is glad to receive notes on all topics of interest to sociologists and persons working along sociological lines in the broadest acceptance of the term. It is not the purpose of these columns to define the boundaries of sociology, but rather to group in one place for the convenience of members of the Academy available bits of information on the subject that would otherwise be scattered throughout various departments of the ANNALS. The usefulness of this department will naturally depend largely on the measure of co-operation accorded the editor by other members of the Academy.

Among those who have already indicated their interest and willingness to contribute are such well-known workers along sociological lines as Professor F. H. Giddings (Columbia College), Professor W. F. Willcox (Cornell University), Dr. John Graham Brooks (Cambridge, Mass.), Dr. E. R. Gould (Chicago University), Mr. John Koren (Boston), Hon. Carroll D. Wright (Washington, D. C.), Professor E. Cheysson (Paris), Mr. Robert D. McGonnigle (Pittsburg, Pa.), President John H. Finley (Knox College), Professor D. R. Dewey (Boston), Rev. Dr. L. T. Chamberlain (New York), Dr. Wm. H. Tolman (New York), Dr. D. I. Green (Hartford), Mr. Robert Donald (London), Prof. Guiseppe Fiamingo (Rome), Dr. Georg Simmel (Berlin), Professor Dr. Georg v. Mayr (Strassburg), Miss Emily Green Balch (Jamaica Plains, Mass.), Miss M. E. Richmond (Baltimore, Md.), and others.

Labor Question.—" *Company Stores* " in the *Pennsylvania Mining Districts*. Great reforms are usually the result of peculiar and unexpected combinations of forces. Years of agitation to secure better sanitary conditions, good light and ventilation in the machine workshops of this country and of England, accomplished little, compared with the almost instantaneous change that took place through the introduction of the electric traveling trains. The moment that this became a necessity in the workshop, great changes in the construction of buildings was at once imperative and, with these changes, instigated by the employers' interests, came the very improvements in the way of large and spacious workrooms, filled with adequate light and good air that the previous labor reform agitation had failed to secure. A somewhat similar result of no mean significance has just materialized in the mining districts of Western Pennsylvania and bids fair to extend throughout the country and afford some solution of the vexed and much-debated question of the miners' difficulties in connection with company stores. These stores are known in the miners' dialect as "pluck-me" stores, and in the Pittsburgh district, and doubtless elsewhere, they have been the instruments through which grievous wrongs were inflicted on coal miners. The system is doubtless familiar to most students of the labor question. It has worked to the injury of the coal miners in three distinct ways. In the first place, it has limited the output of the individual miners and thus diminished

their earnings. In order that every possible dollar of earnings shown on the pay-roll may go through the store, it was necessary to limit the earnings of each miner to that amount which his needs required him to draw from the store for the necessities of life. Otherwise, when pay day came, there would be a cash balance due him and a consequent loss of profit on a corresponding amount of store goods. The limitation of earnings was easily accomplished by introducing three miners, where there was full work for two, or two miners, where there was full work for only one. Supposing that a miner could dig three tons of coal a day, at seventy cents a ton, his daily wages would be \$2.10. The "pluck-me" system would at once crowd the mine, so that the miner could get wagons for only one and a half tons per day, thus causing the reduction in his wages of at least a dollar as compared with the results of full work. In the second place, this system having unfairly reduced the miners' output, further wrongs him by bringing about a reduction in the rate per ton for mining. The mines of the district having a capacity for producing more coal than the market will take, found it necessary, on account of fierce competition between the coal operators, to underbid each other to an extent that many of them filled their orders at cost and sometimes, even below cost, looking to their "pluck-me" stores for the chance to make a profit of at least ten cents per ton. If all the mines had been operated in connection with the "pluck-me" system, this state of affairs might have gone on until competition reduced the profits in the stores to *nil*, or, at least, have caused so great a measure of wrong to the miners, that they would have openly resisted further aggressions on the part of the stores. Indeed, it is remarkable that the miners patiently endured the store grievances and bore the burden of the competition in the open market as long as they did. The remedy came, however, from an unexpected source. Those operators who did not have a store system were first forced to the wall and their profit taken away while their competitors were able to hold out longer because of their stores. Those operators, therefore, without stores at once espoused the cause of the miners and declared war on the store system.

The third grievance of the miner is the very familiar one that, in addition to reducing his output and the price per ton for mining, it then unfairly taxes his scanty earnings by forcing him to pay extortionate prices for the goods that he consumes.

At the Convention of Western Pennsylvania Railroad Miners, held in Pittsburgh, May 29, 1889, resolutions condemning the store system, were adopted, but no effectual results were accomplished until the

General Convention of Miners and Operators, held in Pittsburgh, October 12, 1895, when through the assistance and indeed on the initiative of certain of the operators, a definite agreement was made whereby a differential of five cents per ton in the cost of digging coal was granted to those operators who will abolish stores and pay cash. This is the most practical step that has ever been taken by miners of the Pittsburgh coal district and it is likely to have abiding results. Henceforth operators with stores are required to pay sixty-nine cents a ton for mining, while those without stores are asked to pay but sixty-four cents per ton. This arrangement goes into effect January 1, 1896. The new arrangement leads to the correction of other evils to which the miners have in the past been subject. For example, a mine working in this region, which has no limit of weight on wagons, or which has no check-weighman, or which uses screens not uniform in size with the screens of the district, or which pays in anything but cash, pays twenty cents per ton more for mining than the mines at which there is no limit as to weight of wagons, or whose screens are uniform, and which allow check-weighmen on the tippie and pays earnings in cash.

Mr. William P. De Armit, the President of the New York and Cleveland Gas Coal Company of Pittsburgh, himself a coal operator, has been largely influential in bringing about these reforms which have been of benefit to both employer and employed. For at least eleven years he has been calling attention to these evils and urging action looking to their remedy, on both operators and miners. His little pamphlet, entitled, "The 'Pluck-me' Store," embodies an address which he delivered at the Convention of Miners in May, 1889, and was printed in the various languages used by the miners of Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana and Illinois and at least 170,000 copies were distributed in this region and doubtless contributed largely to the present outlook for the satisfactory settlement of the controversy of long standing. The abolishment of the evils referred to will constitute a greater gain to the miners than anything which has been obtained by them or for them, through their organizations, within the past twenty-five years and it is rather curious that this result has been due to an entirely unexpected combination of business forces and that it should have come largely through the persistent agitation of the coal operator, rather than through the miners' organizations or their leaders.

Theory of Social Forces.—Those readers of the ANNALS who have followed the interesting controversy between Professor Simon N. Patten and Professor Franklin H. Giddings, which was published in these pages about a year ago as a result of the appearance in print

of Patten's "Failure of Biologic Sociology,"* and Giddings' "Theory of Sociology"† will be glad to know that Professor Patten has put his views in more systematic shape in the monograph which is sent as a supplement to this number of the ANNALS. Here Professor Patten develops much more fully and clearly some of the more suggestive points touched upon in the former discussion, all of which should be re-read in the present connection. Professor Giddings' forthcoming volume on the "Principles of Sociology" is announced for publication on January 15. It contains in the parts bearing on this discussion a much fuller statement of his position.

It will be found that Professor Patten approaches the problem of social evolution from a fresh and original point of view. Heretofore it has been customary for those who study social problems from the biologic side to take for granted the general truth and sufficiency of the theory of evolution, without seeking to inquire just how and why the evolutionary process assumed has taken place. Dr. Patten lays great stress on the influence that the social environment has had in determining the direction of such evolution. As he well says: "The problem of evolution may be studied either through the examination of developed organisms, or through an examination of those elements in the environment that have given the direction to the evolution. The former study is inductive and historical; the latter is deductive and its conclusions are in the form of causal laws."

Briefly outlined, Dr. Patten's social theories rest upon the assumption that the progressive development of organic life on this planet, has been in its later phases the result of the development of a more and more refined mental organism, the parts of which have been in turn the "requisites for survival," as the organism adapted itself to increasingly complex environments.

The monograph is divided into four parts, which treat respectively of, "The Influence of the Environment," "Race Psychology," "Knowledge and Belief," and "A Social Commonwealth." It is to the latter section perhaps that the readers' attention will be chiefly drawn. In his discussion of a social commonwealth, Dr. Patten makes many original and suggestive observations concerning the part which race ideals and beliefs may play in social progress. The social commonwealth is a picture of a society developing under "normal," conditions; a picture not in harmony with society as we know it, because real society has, in Dr. Patten's opinion, been

* ANNALS, Vol. iv, p. 919, May, 1894, also issued as Publication No. 121.

† Supplement to ANNALS, Vol. v, July, 1894.

forced out of the channel of "normal" development on account of the lack of correspondence between the social forces and social environment.

Incidental to the discussion of the social commonwealth, Dr. Patten suggests a basis for a progressive theory of morals and religion which will recommend itself to the wide circle of readers interested in the religious discussions of the day. Still more significant is his discussion of the æsthetic feelings as social forces. They have not been regarded heretofore in any such striking way by the social philosopher, but in his chapters on "City Life" and the part that a healthy development of æsthetic feelings might play in socialization of various kinds, where the gratification or satisfaction of these feelings can be had only through group action, there are many suggestions to the social reformer which are capable of wide application in general public education.

Negro Problem.—Mr. Booker T. Washington, of the Tuskegee (Ala.) Normal and Industrial Institute, has made himself one of the leading authorities in the United States on the question of negro education. Clark Howell, the editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*, in writing to the editor of the New York *World* spoke of Mr. Washington's address at the opening of the Atlanta Cotton States and International Exposition as one of the most notable speeches ever delivered to a Southern audience. He goes on to say, "it was an epoch-making talk and marks distinctively the turning point in the progress of the negro race, and its effect in bringing about a perfect understanding between the whites and blacks of the South, will be immediate. The address was a revelation. It was the first time that a negro orator had appeared on a similar occasion before a Southern audience." The chief characteristics of Mr. Washington's remarks were a full recognition of that economic conflict and the relative economic strength of the antagonistic elements in this race problem, that is at the basis of the whole controversy. With admirable clearness he succeeded in bringing some pertinent facts respecting the negro out of the halo of pure sentiment, and in making them contribute to a most satisfactory theory regarding the negro's further progress, which must find acceptance at the hands of the black man as well as of the white man. Perhaps, however, the most striking fact brought out in this connection was that the brightest outlook for the negro, provided he attains to some measure of industrial efficiency, is in the Southern States. Notwithstanding our boasted sentiments respecting him in the North and the plentiful supply of contempt which we often shower on his so-called oppressors in the South, the white people of the South stand to-day

more ready to give him the chance to show any merit that he may possess along the lines of business and industry, than do we of the North. They are more accustomed to him as a factor in their lives and are less afraid of coming into personal contact with him, which fact hampers him quite considerably in his industrial development in the North. The spirit of Mr. Washington's entire address may be inferred from the following paragraph:

"The wisest among my race understand that the agitation of questions of social equality is the extremest folly and that progress in the enjoyment of all the privileges that will come to us, must be the result of severe and constant struggle, rather than of artificial forcing. No race that has anything to contribute to the markets of the world, is long in any degree ostracised. It is important and right that all privileges of the law be ours, but it is vastly more important that we be prepared for the exercises of these privileges. The opportunity to earn a dollar in a factory, just now is worth infinitely more than the opportunity to spend a dollar in an opera house."*

The school at Tuskegee has just completed its fourteenth year of work. It stands for all that was good in the ideas developed by General Armstrong at Hampton Institute; indeed, both it and its principal are worthy representatives of the beneficent influence of the mother institution. Over 800 boys and girls, representing seventeen States and one Territory, were in attendance during the past year. The average age for pupils was eighteen and a half years and none found admittance under fourteen years. Sixty-six instructors, all of them of the colored race, are employed in the teaching force. In addition to the ordinary subjects of elementary education, instruction is given in twenty-two industries and every opportunity is afforded for the student to apply his political knowledge on the place, and gain the practical experience that will fit him for industrial life.

The buildings have been largely constructed by the labor of the students and the whole property of the school is now valued at over \$215,000. It stands as one of the greatest boons to the unfortunate black man of the Great Black Belt of the South and is in every way making its life felt, not only on the students who come within its walls, but on the community in which it is located.

Charities.—*Conventions of State and Public Officers.* It is an indication of the spread of the principles of the newer charity, which

* Copies of Mr. Washington's address, which is not long, may be had in pamphlet form, by application, enclosing stamps, to him at Tuskegee, Ala.

has become much more educational in its character than the older methods—which were altogether too much restricted to mere almsgiving—that now in almost all our States, we have organizations under one name or another, of the leading public officers who have to do with the administration of public institutions and public finances. Most of these associations hold annual conventions within their respective State borders. On these occasions, the majority of the County Commissioners, Overseers of the Poor, or other similar officers under other names, meet together to discuss problems of management administration, and to view from a general standpoint some of the economic and social questions in connection with the dependent classes.

The Association of the Directors of the Poor and Charities of Pennsylvania held its Twenty-first Annual Session in Philadelphia, October 15 to 17, inclusive. Very interesting reports upon almshouses, institutions, etc., were presented. Preventive work was given a very prominent place in many of the discussions. Papers on preventive work of the future, as it relates to the children of the poor; on the cases of prevention of pauperism; on married imbeciles and feeble-minded persons, what to do with them and how to prevent their propagation; on the distribution of pauperism, etc., were read and discussed. Mr. R. D. McGonnigle, of Pittsburgh, who has so long and ably held the position of corresponding secretary, was elected president. The next meeting will be held in Pittsburgh.

The Twenty-fifth Annual Convention of the County Officers of the Poor of the State of New York was held at Ogdensburg in June. The Fifth Ohio Conference of Charities and Corrections was held at Delaware, in October. The Wisconsin State Conference of Charities and Corrections was held in Milwaukee, in February, 1895. The Fourth Indiana Conference of Charities and Corrections was held at Fort Wayne, in October, 1895. The Twenty-first Michigan Convention of the Superintendents of the Poor and the Union Association was held at Flint, in December, 1895, and the Fourth Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Corrections was held at Faribault, in October.

Some little account of each of these conferences, with the exception of the Michigan Convention, may be found in the November number of the *Charities Review** and in most cases the names of the secretaries of the respective associations are given. Almost all of them publish proceedings, containing the papers and discussions, which in many cases are valuable sources of information for students of these

* Published for the Charity Organization Society of the State of New York at Galesburg, Ill.

topics. These proceedings, as a rule, can be obtained by application to the various secretaries, by enclosing a proper number of stamps.

National Conference of Charities and Corrections.—The members of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections will henceforth, in accordance with a special arrangement made by their Executive Committee, receive regularly as part of the publications of that body, the *Charities Review*, which is published primarily for the Charity Organization Society of New York, and is at the same time the most valuable special publication in its line issued in this country. In addition to its general features, it will in the future give special attention to matters pertaining to the work of the National Conference.

Child-Helping Societies in Massachusetts.—It is part of the policy of those engaged in the best scientific charity work at the present time, to have frequent conferences between societies, individuals, and organizations, in any given locality, engaged in a similar line of work. These are always useful, if in no other way, at least in bringing the workers in more sympathetic contact with each other and increasing their knowledge of what each, individually, is doing. Discussions also often lead to more united and persistent efforts on the part of all concerned.

A still further opportunity for helpfulness consists in the publication, under the auspices of such conference organizations, of papers and prepared reports bearing directly on the line of work in question. The Conference of Child-Helping Societies in Massachusetts, of which Miss Emily Greene Balch is secretary, has just issued a "Manual for Use in Cases of Juvenile Offenders and Other Minors in Massachusetts," which Miss Balch prepared at the request of the conference. It contains a summary of all the legal aspects of treating juvenile offenders and minors. This material is arranged in a convenient form for ready reference, and the whole pamphlet is written in language easily understood by those not acquainted with technical legal terms, but contains also frequent references to the law and judicial decisions in the State of Massachusetts bearing on this topic.

Cooper Union Labor Bureau, New York City.—For a long time it was the wish of Peter Cooper that there might be some kind of labor bureau or exchange at the Cooper Institute, as well as some kind of loan association for workingmen. The latter wish was realized a few years ago in the organization of the Birkbeck Company, and the former, October 7, when the Cooper Union Labor Bureau was opened at Room 15. This Bureau exists for the purpose of affording facilities for securing work, if the applicant can give a satisfactory

character and business reference. The references are as carefully investigated by the Bureau as by an individual business man, and, if satisfactory, the man is placed on the available list. Applications are coming in from large employers of labor, and a position on the available list is in direct line of securing a position. From the survey of the entire field, men with some physical disability, which unfit them for active work but does not prevent them from filling a special position, provided their references are satisfactory, can be placed. The Labor Bureau is not a charity, but is a business enterprise. Only applicants with references, which have been verified by a conscientious investigation, will be recommended to employers. The idle, vicious or physically incapable, will be severely let alone by the Bureau, to be dealt with by other agencies. The Bureau will scrupulously avoid giving charity, but will be at the service of the charitable. To employers desiring good men, the Bureau will save time in searching for them, expense in advertising, and trouble in determining their fitness and character. To employes, the Bureau will save time and money in looking for a position, and in trying vainly to secure it for themselves. To the general public, the Bureau will be of advantage in saving men from being the recipients of charity through forced idleness, and will relieve the community to that extent of the necessity of giving charity. The Bureau does not undertake to provide employment, but only to afford facilities for so doing. For the more efficient conduct of the work, the following rules and regulations have been adopted:

1. Every person applying to be registered shall fill up correctly a printed form to be obtained on personal application to the Superintendent at the Bureau.

2. Every person applying to be registered shall take his place in rotation, and any person not behaving in a proper manner will be excluded at the discretion of the Superintendent.

3. Every person who has been registered shall, as soon as possible after obtaining employment, fill in and send to the Superintendent at the Labor Bureau, the printed form provided for that purpose.

4. The names of all persons who have been registered will remain on the register for Fourteen Days only (Sundays and Holidays not counting), unless such persons on the Fourteenth Day after registration give notice that they are still out of employment and resident in New York, such notice to be repeated on every succeeding Fourteenth Day that they remain out of employment.

5. The Bureau does not undertake to find employment, but only to afford facilities for so doing.

6. That in the selection of men to be employed by the City, preference will be given as follows:

- (a) Married men, with families.

- (b) Married men, without families.

- (c) Single men.

7. If employment be offered, the Superintendent will afford those registered an opportunity of applying for it, according to fitness, by rotation, but employers

may select from the register any one whom they consider specially suitable for their employment.

8. No employer will be provided with employes in case of a strike, nor will any employe on strike be eligible for registration.

9. All employers engaging labor through the agency of the Bureau are expected to pay the wages usually paid in their respective trades.

10. All references will be carefully and conscientiously examined, and no applicant will be recommended for a position unless his references are satisfactory in every particular to the Superintendent.

11. ~~As~~ No applicant shall be registered unless he shall have resided for at least six months in New York City.

12. No fee shall be charged for registration, or for securing employes.

13. Office hours are from 9 a. m. to 5 p. m.

14. This Labor Bureau is open for men who are seeking employment, and for those who are seeking the services of men.

The Tramp Question in Hartford, Conn.—The police department in Hartford has been in the habit of lodging all persons who applied, sometimes stowing away as many as sixty or seventy on one night in the prisoners' cells. During October and November of 1895 the usual number of these lodgers ranged from fifteen to twenty per night. They were largely acknowledged to be ordinary tramps, although under the State law that vocation is a State's prison offence. The Board of Police Commissioners, however, took a new stand on November 24, and instructed the Chief of Police to have all tramps arrested and brought before the courts. Those applicants claiming residence in Connecticut are to be charged with vagrancy, and those without residence made to answer to the charge of being tramps. As a result of this activity in enforcing the law, application for free lodging in Hartford has almost entirely ceased, and but few tramps apply for help at the office of the Charity Organization Society. The police court judge frequently relaxes the severity of the law by giving the prisoner the privilege of leaving the town. The public often defeats the terrorizing character of the law by giving money to those who appeal for a dime to save themselves from arrest. It remains to be seen whether the laxity of the police court judges, and this indiscriminate giving on the part of the public, will eventually undermine the good effects of the law. At present, however, Hartford seems to be marked by the tramp fraternity as one of the towns to be avoided.

Popular Banks in Italy.—Professor Guiseppe Fiamingo, of Rome, has recently called attention to the rather remarkable development of the co-operative banks in Italy.* The greatest progress in the co-operative movement in England has been chiefly along the line of co-operative societies for the consumption of produced goods,

* In the columns of *Le Siècle*, Paris.

that is, consumers' societies. In France the greatest success has been obtained along the line of producing co-operative societies. In Italy and also in Germany it has been rather the co-operative banks that have attained the greatest success. This has been due in part to the initiative along this line taken by Schultze-Delitsch in Germany, and Luigi Luzzatti, in Italy. In Italy, in spite of the economic crisis, the little popular banks have continued to increase and flourish when larger credit organizations have failed. They have helped the larger merchants and agriculturalists, as well as the smaller ones and the working men. In 1893, their clientele numbered 368,193 persons. Of this number, 24,116 were large agriculturalists and 88,000 smaller holders; 17,000 peasants; 92,000 smaller merchants; 29,000 working men and 69,000 officials and employes. From 1864, the date when the first popular bank was established, to 1870, their number increased steadily. In 1870, it was 50; in 1881, they numbered 171, and from 1881 to 1887, their increase was still more rapid, so that in the latter year they numbered 608 and possessed a capital of 104,000,000 liras. The increase for the following years, in spite of the severe times, steadily continued, for example, in 1888, 652; 1889, 672; 1890, 694; 1894, 720, with a capital of 115,000,000 liras. In this latter year they received on deposit 372,000,000 liras and discounted paper, aggregating in amount 214,000,000 liras.

School Savings Banks.—The statistics of this movement in the State of New Jersey, up to June 1, 1895, have been recently published by Mrs. S. L. Oberholtzer, 1905 Tioga street, Philadelphia, from whom any information as to how to institute school savings banks may be obtained. Other literature on the subject will be supplied by application to the same source.

Since January 1, 1894, it would seem from this recent report that these savings banks have been instituted in thirty-nine school-houses in New Jersey, covering six towns or cities. All but ten of these banks, however, date in their foundation from some time since January 6, 1895, and thus are of very recent origin. The number of children registered in these schools is 13,230, and, in a relatively short time, over 6700 depositors were actually enrolled. The total deposits amounted to \$8,638.01, of which only \$489.10 had been drawn on the date of this report.